

Block 2

Supervised Machine Learning-pipeline

illustrated by **kNN** (& **linear regression**)

Lecturer: --

Authors: Lackner Stefan, Bernhard Knapp

Credits: David Meyer, Pascal Plank

Clustering

k-means
Hierarchical clustering
DB-scan

Regression

KNN regression
Regression trees
Linear regression
Multiple regression
Ridge and Lasso regression
Neural networks

Classification

KNN classification
Classification trees
Ensembles & Boosting
Random Forest
Logistic regression
Naive Bayes
Support vector machines
Neural networks

Supervised learning

Machine learning process

Data handling
EDA, data cleaning
Training and testing
Feature selection
Class balancing
etc

Non-supervised learning

Dimensionality reduction

PCA / SVD
tSNE
Multi dimensional scaling
Linear discriminant analysis

AI

Generative AI

Not covered here

Reinforcement learning

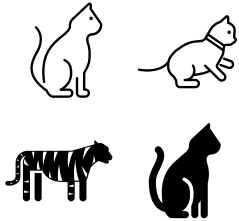
Not covered here

Machine Learning Types

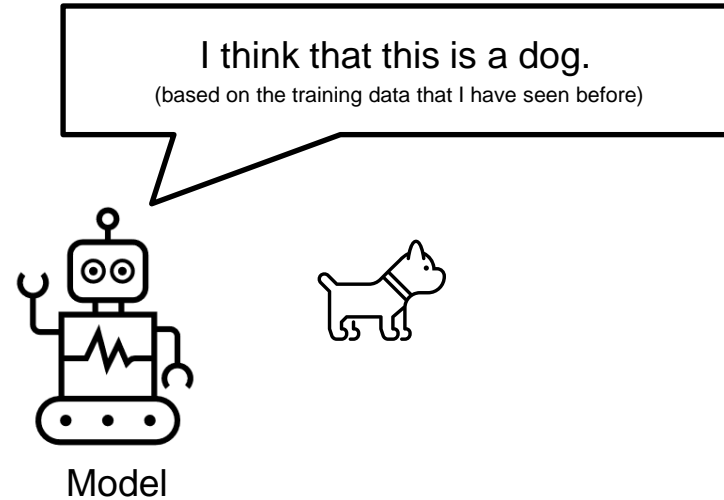
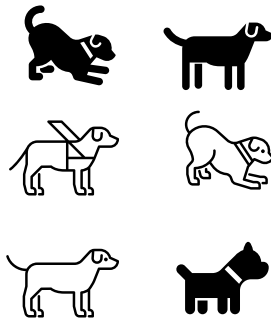
- **Supervised Learning:**
 - labelled data
 - Direct feedback
 - Predict an outcome/future, forecasting
 - E. g. predict customers that will return

labelled training data

cats



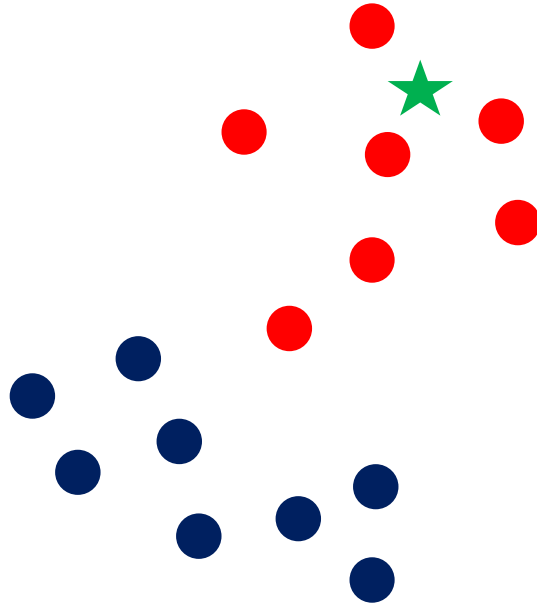
dogs



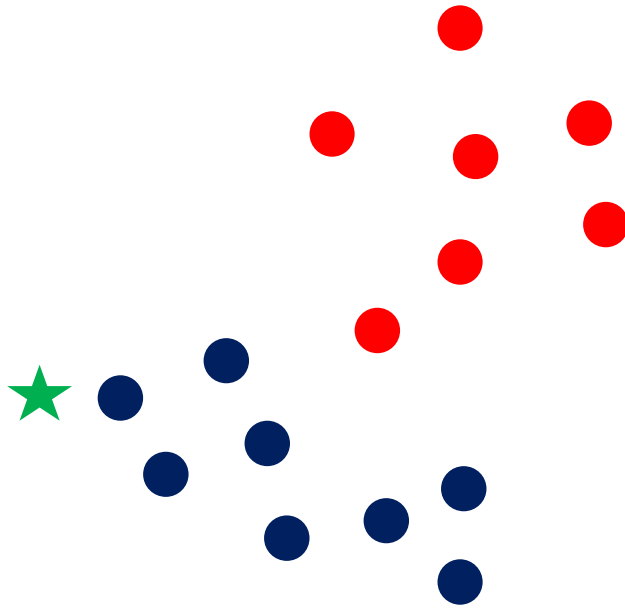
Feedback: correct!

First some k-nearest neighbors (kNN) intuition:

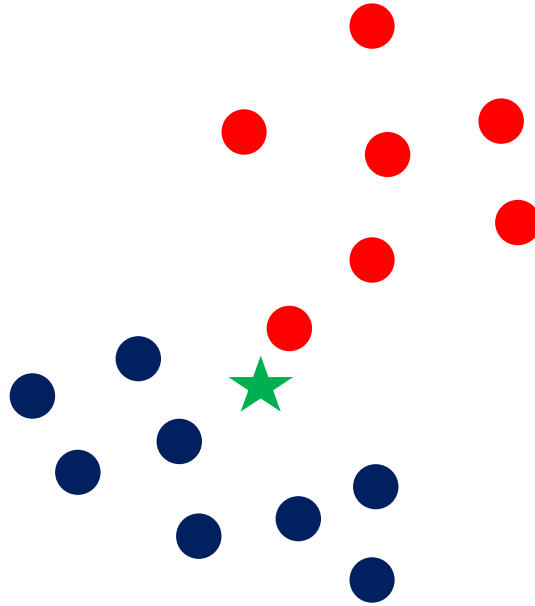
Once upon a time there was a king with a rose garden ...



“That seed will clearly become a red rose!”



“That seed will clearly become a blue rose!”



“Hmmm”

Determine the colour of the seed based on the k nearest neighbours (=kNN) ...

(but in reality we have many more than 2 dimensions therefore it is not that obvious to a human)

... still many people consider kNN as one of the simplest AI algorithms.

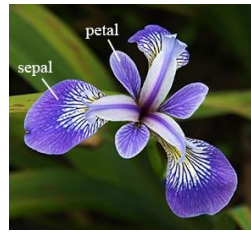
But before we dive deeper into kNN we have to introduce some terminology ...

Contents

- **Features and Targets**
- **Supervised Machine Learning Workflow**
- **Demo 1**
- **Performance Metrics**
- **Performance Evaluation**
- **Demo 2**
- **kNN – Similarity and Distance**
- **kNN – Weighting**
- **Feature Engineering**
- **Hyper-Parameter Tuning**
- **Demo 3**
- **Recap & Exercises**

Features & Targets

- In supervised machine learning the data consists of:
- **Features** (aka. predictors), usually denoted by X
- **Targets** (regression), **labels** (classification), usually denoted by y



sepal length (cm)	sepal width (cm)	petal length (cm)	petal width (cm)	class
54	37	15	2	setosa
69	31	54	21	virginica
45	23	13	3	setosa
64	32	45	15	versicolor
71	30	59	21	virginica
50	23	33	10	versicolor
65	32	51	20	virginica
55	26	44	12	versicolor
67	33	57	25	virginica
44	32	13	2	setosa

target/label, y

predictors/features, X

Features & Targets

- Targets/labels have to be collected which is often expensive
- The general aim is to **learn a function** mapping from features/predictors to targets/labels
- The learned function is then **applied** on data where targets/labels are **unknown** and returns the most likely target value/label
- The learned function is also referred to as the **fitted model**. It is simply the algorithm you chose with parameters adjusted to the training set

Features & Targets

#1 Training the algorithm

sepal length (cm)	sepal width (cm)	petal length (cm)	petal width (cm)	class
54	37	15	2	setosa
69	31	54	21	virginica
45	23	13	3	setosa
64	32	45	15	versicolor
71	30	59	21	virginica
50	23	33	10	versicolor
65	32	51	20	virginica
55	26	44	12	versicolor
67	33	57	25	virginica
44	32	13	2	setosa

#2 Use the fitted algorithm for predction

sepal length (cm)	sepal width (cm)	petal length (cm)	petal width (cm)	class
79	38	64	20	
77	38	67	22	
77	28	67	20	
77	30	61	23	
77	26	69	23	
76	30	66	21	
74	28	61	19	
73	29	63	18	

← $\hat{Y} = \hat{f}(X)$

Unfortunately, the definitions in the literature defer ...



X**y**

features

feature variables

independent variables

predictor variables

regressors

explanatory variables

input variables

exogenous variables

target variable

target

dependet variable

predicted variable

regressand

explained variable

output

response variable

label

endogenous variable

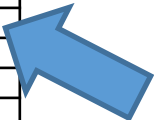
samples
or
rows

Python's numpy (e.g. in `sklearn.linear_model.LinearRegression`)**X** : numpy array or sparse matrix of shape `[n_samples,n_features]`**y** : numpy array of shape `[n_samples, n_targets]`

This exists/works also for regressions ...

Regression example:

X features						y target variable
Samples	Age	Education level	Years experience	Manager of	Sick days	Income / y
	John Smith	25	2	1	0	3
	Kate Mayer	37	5	15	5	0
	Angelo Biden	32	0	2	0	21

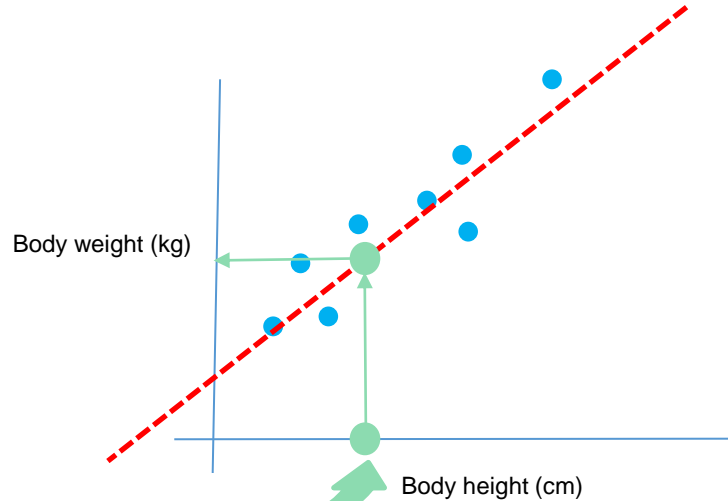


Regression vs classification?

- If we try to predict a **number** (e.g. 43.71 or 99) we talk about **regression**
- If we try to predict a **class** (e.g. car / cycle / boat) we talk about **classification**

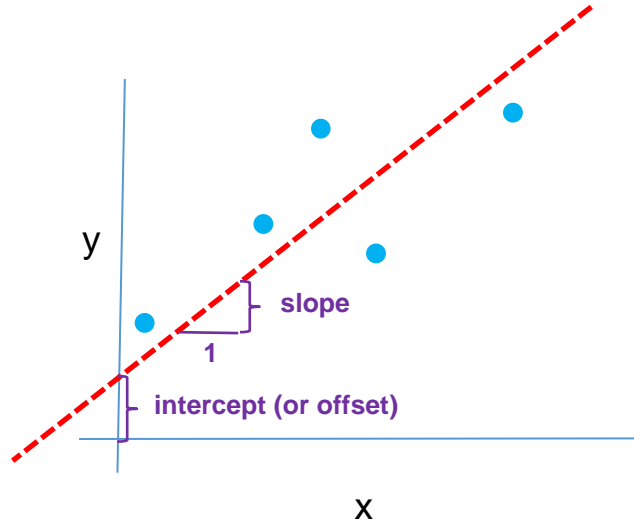
Simple Linear Regression: idea

person id	Body height (cm)	Body weight (kg)
1	191	86
2	173	75
3	165	63
4	177	76
5	181	80
6	152	48
7	182	72
...		
236	169	???



Estimate “body weight” based on “body height”

A line is defined by two parameters:



$$y = \text{slope} * x + \text{intercept}$$

or

$$y = kx + d$$

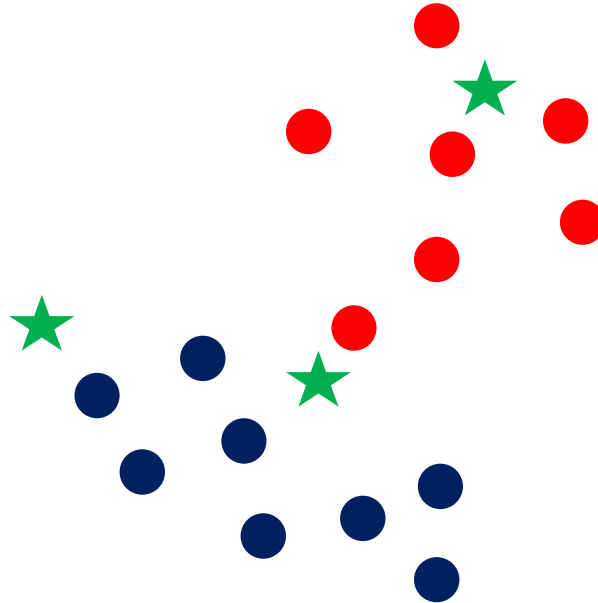
$$y = ax + b$$

$$y = b_0 + b_1x$$

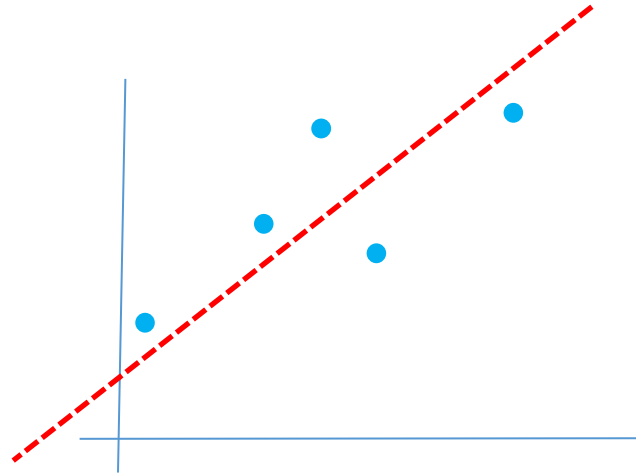
Slope and *intercept* are called **parameters**.

(In later lectures we will try to find optimal values for them to fit our data)

So what would be our *features* and *targets* in the **rose example** above?
And is it regression or classification?



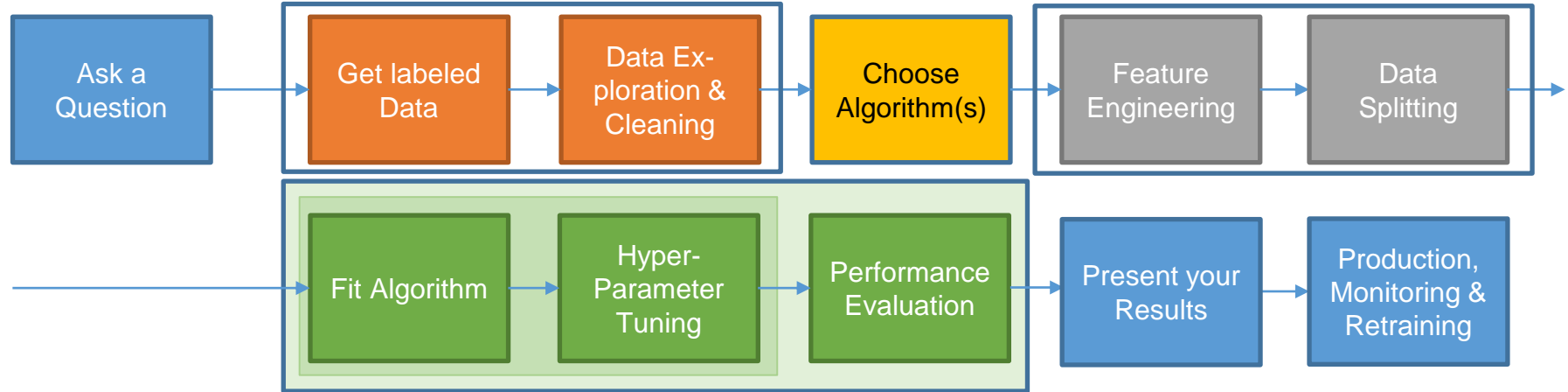
So what would be our *features* and *targets* in the **income** example above?
And is it regression or classification?



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Supervised Machine Learning Workflow



In reality the process will not be linear,
you'll jump back and forth between the steps

On the following slides thinking for each step how this would work
for our roses (classification) and income (regression) example!

Supervised Machine Learning Workflow

Get labeled
Data

- If the data you have for training leaves out important cases you have a problem!
- Your data must **truthfully represent the whole problem** you want to solve!
- No algorithm can solve this problem for you!

Supervised Machine Learning Workflow

Choose
Algorithm(s)

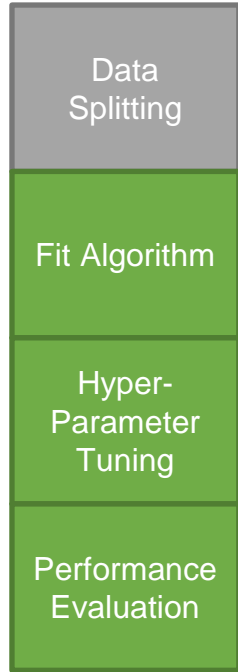
- Choosing an algorithm introduces a decision into the workflow. This decision is called the **inductive bias**.
- No algorithm is always superior. Search for the „**No free lunch theorem**“ by Wolpert.
- Often, you'll simply have to **try more than one algorithm**

Supervised Machine Learning Workflow

Choose
Algorithm(s)

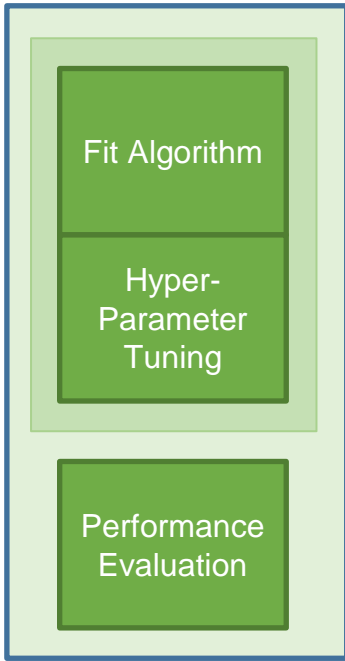
- Algorithms have **parameters** and **hyper-parameters**
- **Parameters** are estimated from the data
- **Hyper-parameters** must be set by the user. Optimization can only be done by **trying several different settings!**

Supervised Machine Learning Workflow



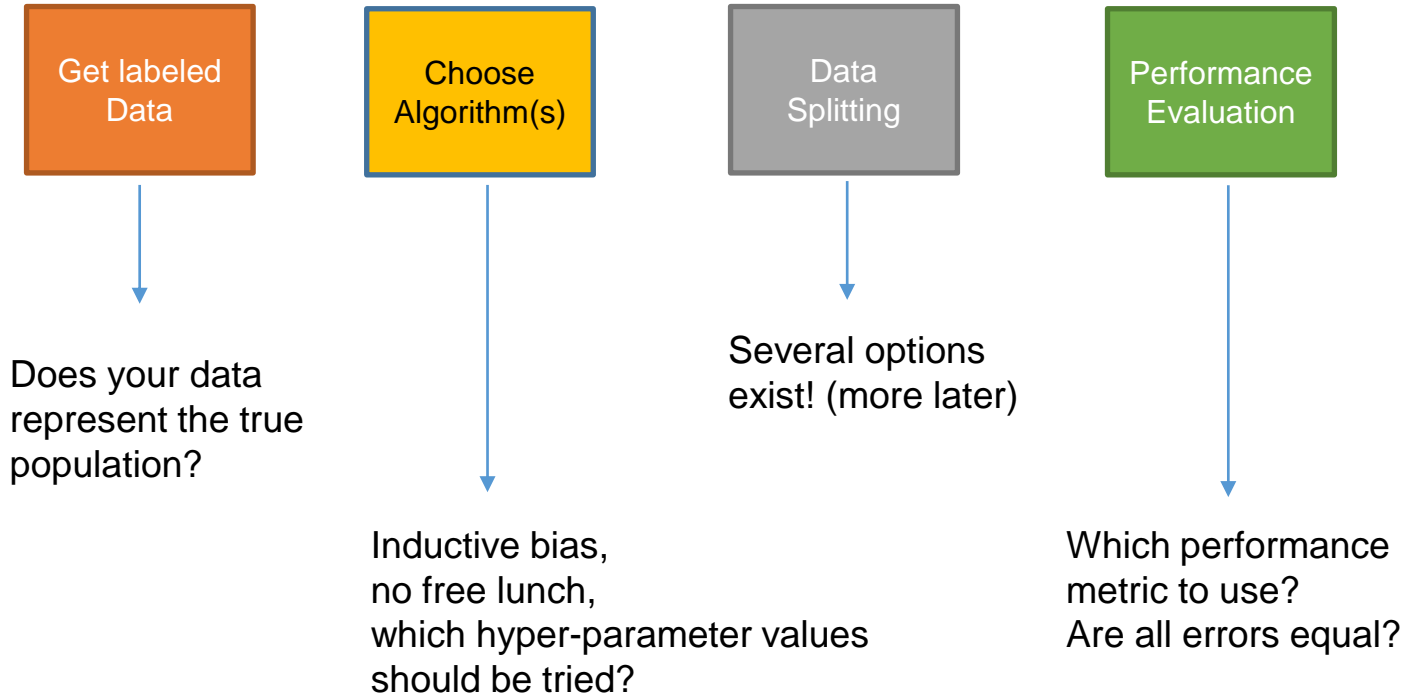
- **Data Splitting:** Data needs to be partitioned into (1) **training**, (2) **validation** and (3) **test sets**
- **Fit Algorithm:** Training sets are used to estimate/optimize parameters from the data
- **Hyper-Parameter Tuning:** Validation sets are used for **performance evaluation** of several **specific hyper parameter settings** and selection of the best hyper parameter setting
- **Performance Evaluation:** Test sets are used to assess the performance of the algorithm with the best found hyper-parameter setting. **We need to choose a performance metric!**

Supervised Machine Learning Workflow



- **Training** and **tuning** should be **separated conceptually**
- In **practical workflows** they are executed as **one step**
- For algorithm tuning one also needs to **measure performance** to choose the best hyper-parameter setting. This is **technically the same** as performance assessment
- Performance evaluation is **conceptually different**, since it is done **after the best hyper-parameter was chosen** using a different data partition

Supervised Machine Learning Workflow



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Demo 1

SciKit Learn

- `load_iris()` ... Load and return the iris dataset (classification).
- `yourAlgorithm = KNeighborsClassifier()` (or `sklearn.linear_model.LinearRegression()`)
- `yourAlgorithm.fit()` ... fits the Algorithm to the data
- `yourAlgorithm.predict()` ... predicts labels/target values to feature values

Try to get this running in Python!

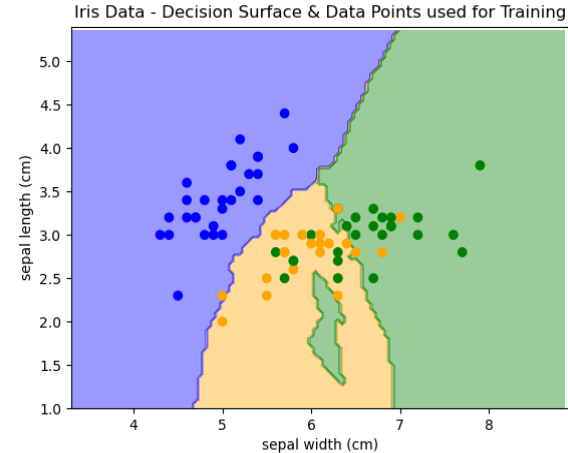
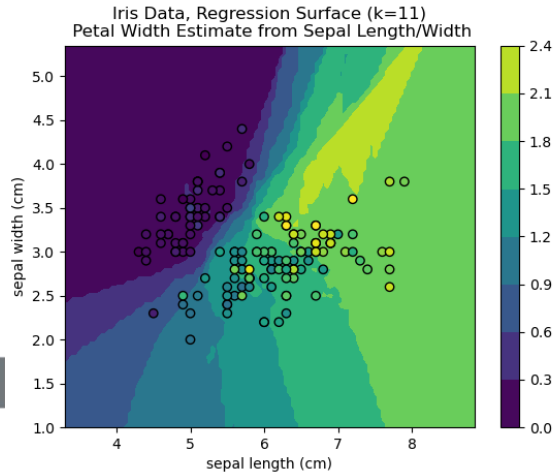
Block 3

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Performance Metrics

- Measure **how well our algorithm performs** on a given dataset
- Return a **scalar value** as a performance summary
- **Fundamentally different** for **regression** (predicting a continuous variable e.g. income) and **classification** (predicting categorical variable e.g. colour of flower)



Performance Metrics - Regression

Mean Absolute Error (MAE)

This could be used for our linear regression example about income but not for the roses!

$$MAE = \frac{1}{N} \sum_{i=1}^N |\hat{y}_i - y_i|$$

divide by the number of e.g. persons

sum up over all e.g. persons

e.g. [True income of person i in our test set] - [Predicted income of person i of our algorithm]

take the absolute value

Performance Metrics - Regression

Mean Squared Error (MSE) or Mean Squared Deviation (MSD)

$$\text{MSD} = \text{MSE} = \frac{1}{n} \sum_{i=1}^n (Y_i - \hat{Y}_i)^2.$$

Using the square makes our metric more sensitive to outliers

Root Mean Square Deviation (RMSD) or Root Mean Square Error (RMSE)

$$\text{RMSD} = \text{RMSE} = \sqrt{\frac{1}{N} \sum_{i=1}^N (\hat{y}_i - y_i)^2}$$

RMSE is just sqrt(MSE)

Performance Metrics - Regression

More Metrics are available

Regression metrics

See the [Regression metrics](#) section of the user guide for further details.

<code>metrics.explained_variance_score(y_true, ...)</code>	Explained variance regression score function.
<code>metrics.max_error(y_true, y_pred)</code>	<code>max_error</code> metric calculates the maximum residual error.
<code>metrics.mean_absolute_error(y_true, y_pred, *)</code>	Mean absolute error regression loss.
<code>metrics.mean_squared_error(y_true, y_pred, *)</code>	Mean squared error regression loss.
<code>metrics.mean_squared_log_error(y_true, y_pred, *)</code>	Mean squared logarithmic error regression loss.
<code>metrics.median_absolute_error(y_true, y_pred, *)</code>	Median absolute error regression loss.
<code>metrics.mean_absolute_percentage_error(...)</code>	Mean absolute percentage error regression loss.
<code>metrics.r2_score(y_true, y_pred, *, [...])</code>	R^2 (coefficient of determination) regression score function.
<code>metrics.mean_poisson_deviance(y_true, y_pred, *)</code>	Mean Poisson deviance regression loss.
<code>metrics.mean_gamma_deviance(y_true, y_pred, *)</code>	Mean Gamma deviance regression loss.
<code>metrics.mean_tweedie_deviance(y_true, y_pred, *)</code>	Mean Tweedie deviance regression loss.

Performance Metrics - Classification

This could be used for our roses example but not for the income example!

Confusion Matrices

- Are the starting point for deriving performance measures in classification
- An example would be Covid-19 test (or a red rose!):

		Predicted condition	
		Positive (PP)	Negative (PN)
Actual condition	Positive (P)	True positive (TP), hit	False negative (FN), type II error, miss, underestimation
	Negative (N)	False positive (FP), type I error, false alarm, overestimation	True negative (TN), correct rejection

Performance Metrics - Classification

Confusion Matrices

From these 4 outcomes lots of performance metrics can be deduced:

Sources: [13][14][15][16][17][18][19][20] view · talk · edit

		Predicted condition			
		Positive (PP)	Negative (PN)	Informedness, bookmaker informedness (BM) $= \text{TPR} + \text{TNR} - 1$	Prevalence threshold (PT) $= \frac{\sqrt{\text{TPR} \times \text{FPR}} - \text{FPR}}{\text{TPR} - \text{FPR}}$
Actual condition	Total population $= P + N$				
	Positive (P)	True positive (TP), hit	False negative (FN), type II error, miss, underestimation	True positive rate (TPR), recall, sensitivity (SEN), probability of detection, hit rate, power $= \frac{\text{TP}}{P} = 1 - \text{FNR}$	False negative rate (FNR), miss rate $= \frac{\text{FN}}{P} = 1 - \text{TPR}$
	Negative (N)	False positive (FP), type I error, false alarm, overestimation	True negative (TN), correct rejection	False positive rate (FPR), probability of false alarm, fall-out $= \frac{\text{FP}}{N} = 1 - \text{TNR}$	True negative rate (TNR), specificity (SPC), selectivity $= \frac{\text{TN}}{N} = 1 - \text{FPR}$
	Prevalence $= \frac{P}{P + N}$	Positive predictive value (PPV), precision $= \frac{\text{TP}}{\text{PP}} = 1 - \text{FDR}$	False omission rate (FOR) $= \frac{\text{FN}}{\text{PN}} = 1 - \text{NPV}$	Positive likelihood ratio (LR+) $= \frac{\text{TPR}}{\text{FPR}}$	Negative likelihood ratio (LR-) $= \frac{\text{FNR}}{\text{TNR}}$
	Accuracy (ACC) $= \frac{\text{TP} + \text{TN}}{P + N}$	False discovery rate (FDR) $= \frac{\text{FP}}{\text{PP}} = 1 - \text{PPV}$	Negative predictive value (NPV) $= \frac{\text{TN}}{\text{PN}}$ $= 1 - \text{FOR}$	Markedness (MK), deltaP (Δp) $= \text{PPV} + \text{NPV} - 1$	Diagnostic odds ratio (DOR) $= \frac{\text{LR}+}{\text{LR}-}$
	Balanced accuracy (BA) $= \frac{\text{TPR} + \text{TNR}}{2}$	F1 score $= \frac{2\text{PPV} \times \text{TPR}}{\text{PPV} + \text{TPR}} = \frac{2\text{TP}}{2\text{TP} + \text{FP} + \text{FN}}$	Fowlkes–Mallows index (FM) $= \sqrt{\text{PPV} \times \text{TPR}}$	Matthews correlation coefficient (MCC) $= \frac{\sqrt{\text{TPR} \times \text{TNR} \times \text{PPV} \times \text{NPV}}}{\sqrt{\text{FNR} \times \text{FPR} \times \text{FOR} \times \text{FDR}}}$	Threat score (TS), critical success index (CSI) $= \frac{\text{TP}}{\text{TP} + \text{FN} + \text{FP}}$

[Confusion matrix - Wikipedia](#)



... confused now? Try:
<https://www.youtube.com/watch?v=Kdsp6sogA7o&t=1s>

Performance Metrics - Classification

Accuracy

- Simplest measure
- Sensitive to class balancing

$$\text{ACC} = (\text{TP} + \text{TN}) / (\text{TP} + \text{TN} + \text{FP} + \text{FN})$$

... this is what most people intuitively come up with: The proportion we got correct divided by everything

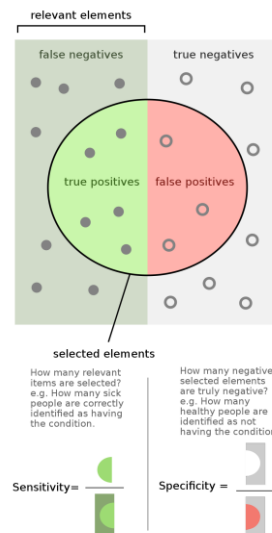
		Predicted condition	
		Positive (PP)	Negative (PN)
Actual condition	Positive (P)	True positive (TP), hit	False negative (FN), type II error, miss, underestimation
	Negative (N)	False positive (FP), type I error, false alarm, overestimation	True negative (TN), correct rejection

Performance Metrics - Classification

True Positive Rate (TPR, sensitivity) / True Negative Rate (TNR, specificity)

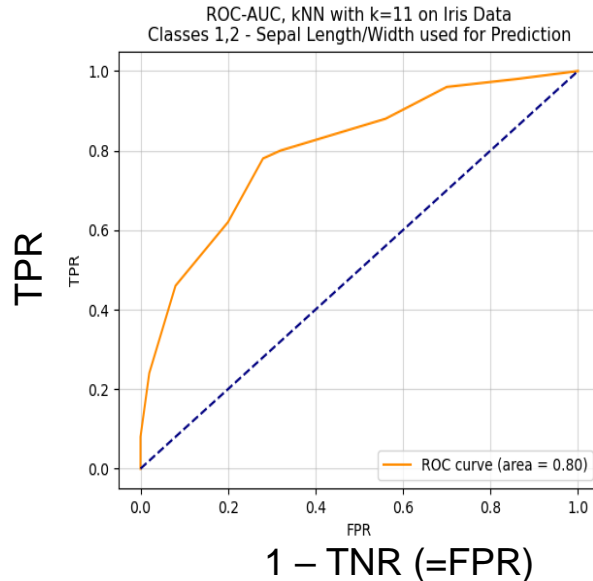
- Interesting if one event is more important than the other. E.g.
 - in **spam filtering** it is more important that (almost) all real emails land in the inbox and a few false negatives (spam in your inbox) do not matter much (TNR is important)
 - but at an **airport** it is important to catch every terrorist and you rather check thousand passengers again manually (even though they are not terrorists) instead of missing one terrorist (TPR is important).
- There is a trade-off between TPR/TNR. This is reflected in the **ROC** curve.

[Confusion matrix - Wikipedia](#)



Performance Metrics - Classification

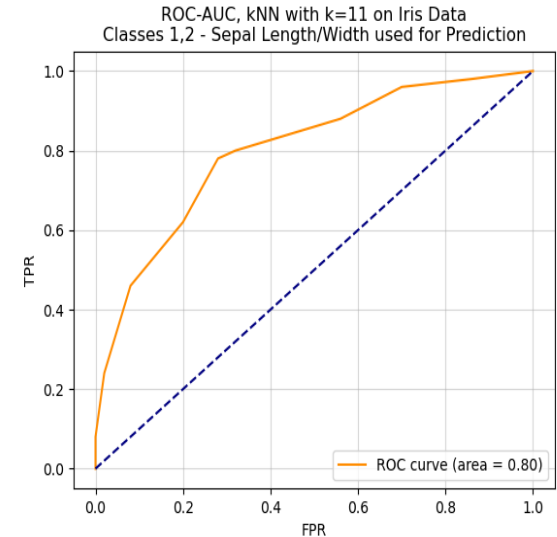
- **Receiver Operator Characteristic (ROC) curves** relate **TPR** and **FPR** in one plot. Left upper corner is the sweet spot
- Used for binary classification problems



[Receiver Operating Characteristic \(ROC\) Area Under the Curve \(AUC\) | Teachers College Columbia University](#)

Performance Metrics - Classification

- The **area under the ROC (AROC) curve** is a popular measure for comparing predictor performance:
 - Perfect performance: $\text{AROC} = 1$
 - “Good”: $\text{AROC} > 0.8$
 - Random prediction: $\text{AROC} = 0.5$
 - Problem in the data if $\text{AROC} < 0.5$ (e.g. flip in signs)



[Receiver Operating Characteristic \(ROC\) Area Under the Curve \(AUC\) | Teachers College Columbia University](#)

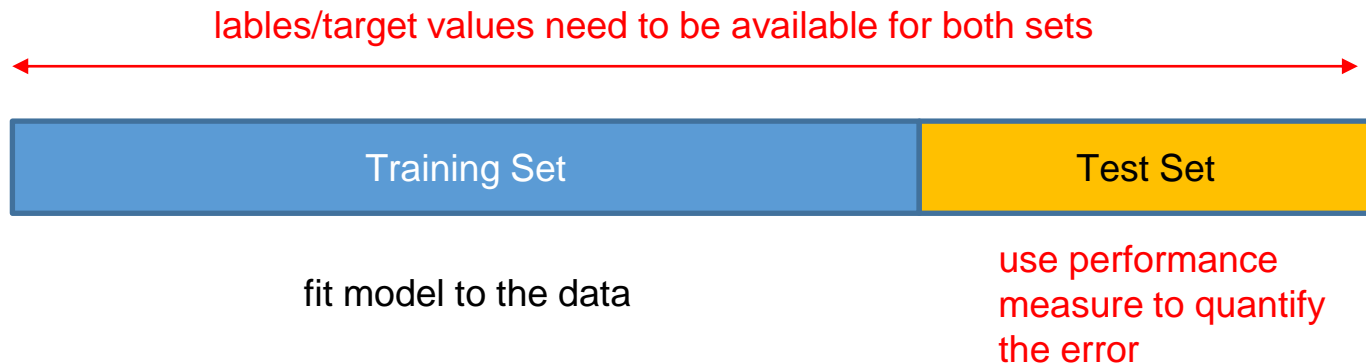
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Performance Evaluation - train/test split

- Our predictions won't be perfect!
- We need to quantify how good our fitted model/function/algorithm will be on **unseen** data
- To do so, we need to introduce a **training phase** and a **testing phase** together with a **train/test split of the data (Hold-Out Validation)**

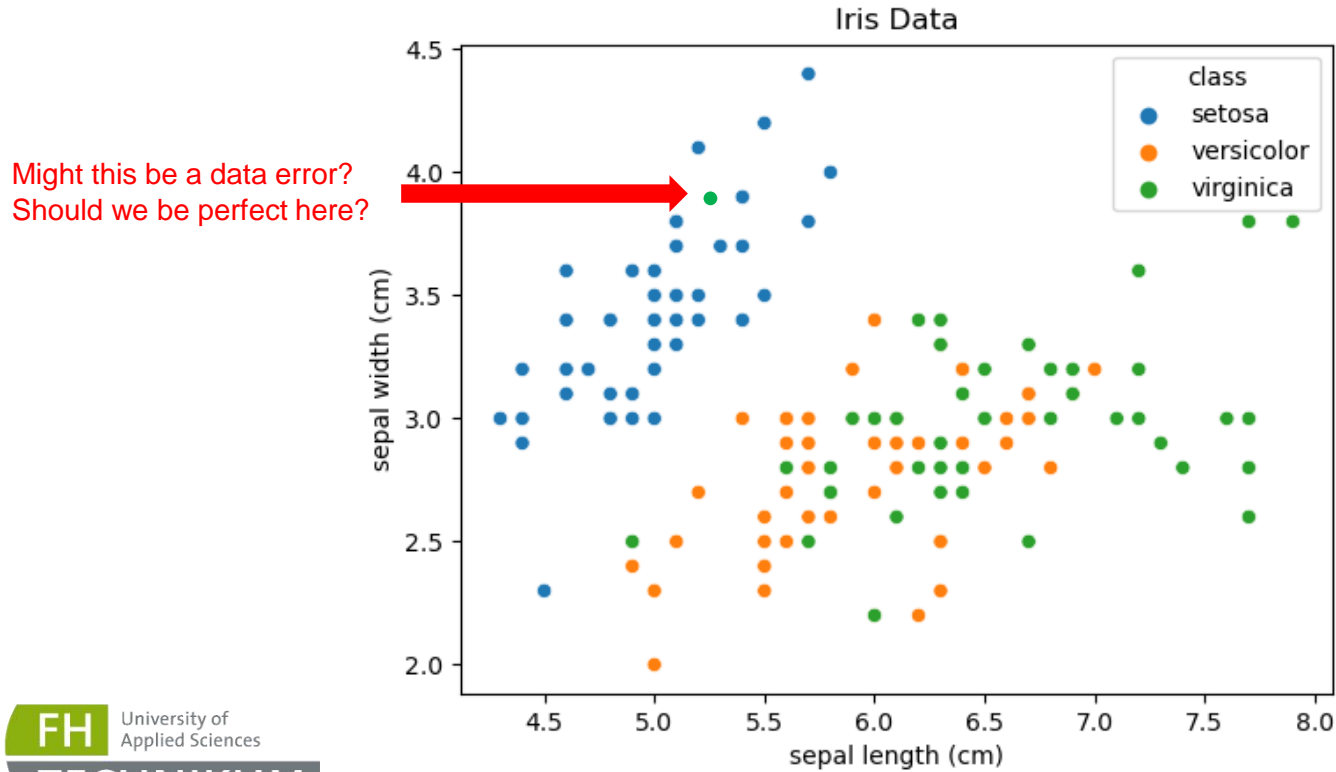
E.g. we train on the income of Peter, John and Jane and we test how well we predict Peters (known) income.



Performance Evaluation

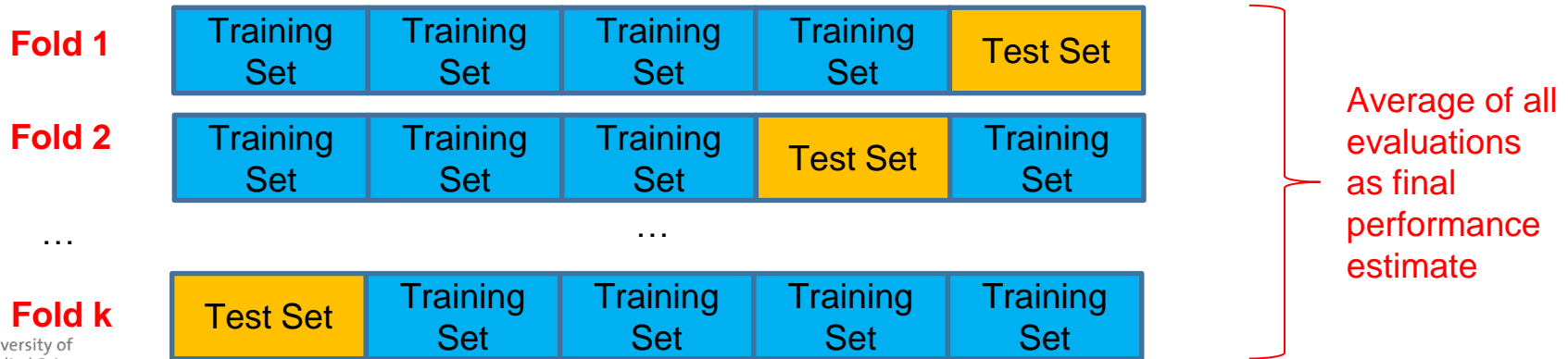
- Performance can also be measured on the same data on which the model was trained (= **resubstitution evaluation**)
- However, this estimate will be **overly optimistic!**
- Results from resubstitution evaluation are called **training error/accuracy** or **in-sample error/accuracy**
- Even if resubstitution evaluation results are good, our algorithm might have only learned the specifics of the training data including noise.
 - Resubstitution evaluation is bad
 - Always split between training and test data

Performance Evaluation



Performance Evaluation

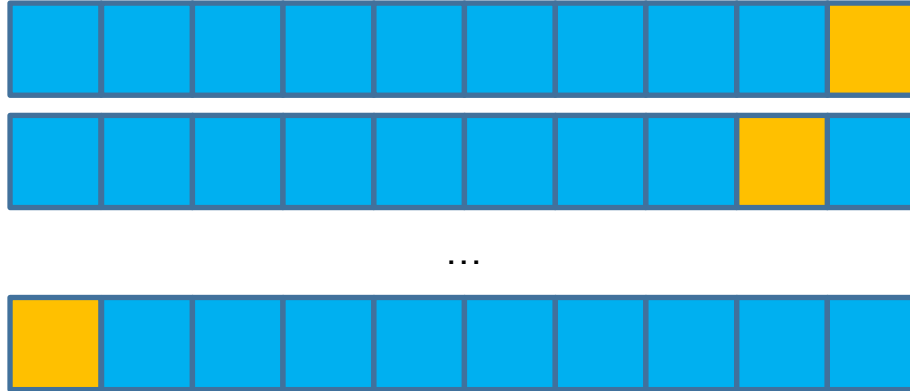
- Using a simple train/test split (hold-out validation) is not robust since the split is arbitrary
- To get a more robust estimate we need to repeat the train/test split
- One way to do this is **k-fold cross-validation (KfCV)**



Performance Evaluation

- Turning k-fold cross-validation on its head we can also talk about **leave p-out cross-validation (LpOCV)**
- E.g., the number of folds could be equal to the number of data points. This is called **leave-one-out cross-validation (LoOCV)**
- When using e.g. 2 data points for performance evaluation, this would be L2OCV

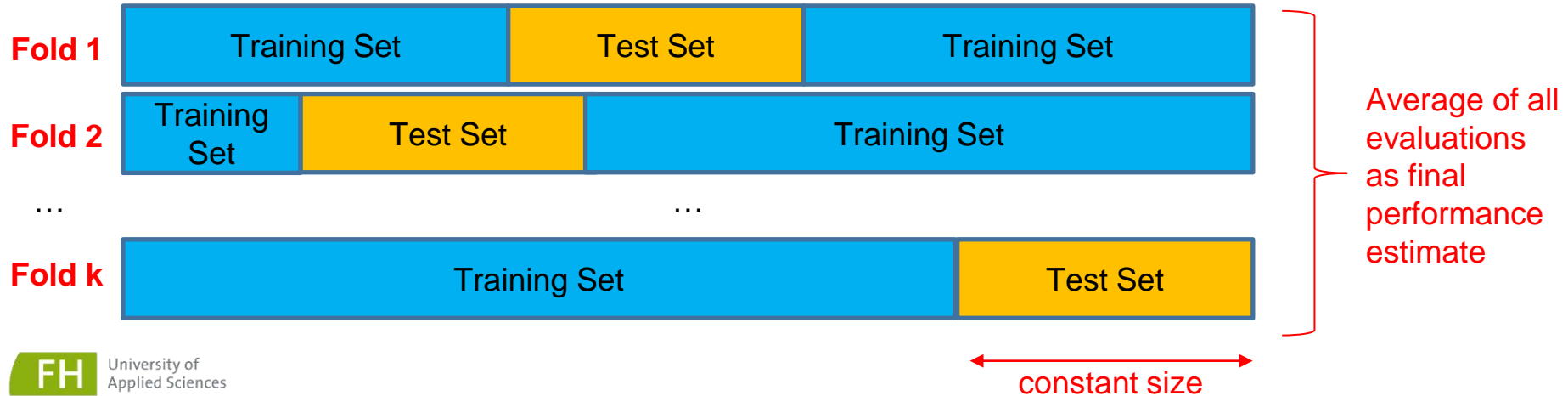
$n = 10$
 $p = 1$



Average of all evaluations
as final performance
estimate

Performance Evaluation

- Folds can also be **sampled randomly** without a fixed stratification
- This is called **Monte Carlo Cross-Validation (MCCV)**
- Size of test set is constant



Performance Evaluation - Recap

- **Resubstitution evaluation** → **forbidden**
- **Holdout Validation (=1-Fold Cross-Validation)** → **unstable estimates**
- **Leave 1-out Cross-Validation** → **used regularly, single estimates not independent due to data overlap, computationally burdensome.**
- **K-Fold Cross-Validation** → **used regularly** with $k=5$, $k=10$. Higher k not necessarily better since single evaluation in folds become more and more dependent due to data overlap.
- **Monte Carlo Cross-Validation** → **used regularly, robust results**

Performance Evaluation

Obtaining one final model after KfCV, LpOCV, MCCV

- Usually the algorithm is retrained on the whole data set before it is put to production!



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Demo 2

Demo 1 and ...

- `train_test_split()` ... partition your data set
- `sklearn.model_selection.KFold()`
- `LeaveOneOut()`
- `LeavePOut()`
- `sklearn.metrics.accuracy_score(y_true, y_pred)`
- `sklearn.metrics.classification_report()`
- etc

Block 4

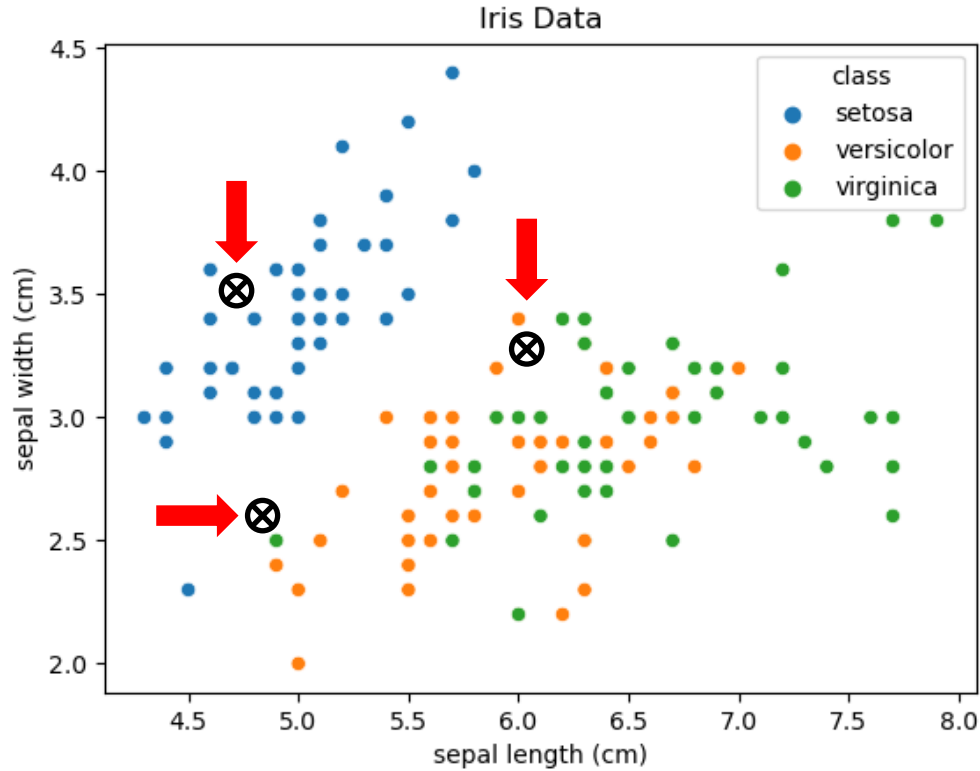
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kNN for Classification (Basic Idea)

- kNN = k-Nearest Neighbors Algorithm
- kNN is based on the notion of **similarity**, where similarity is usually expressed as the **inverse of a chosen distance metric** (for now, just think about the euclidean distance)
- A datapoint with unknown label is classified by **comparing it with its k-nearest neighbors** with known labels
- k is a user defined **hyper**-parameter

kNN for Classification (Basic Idea)



Classify the 3 points
visually using $k = 1, 3, 5$
What is important about
choosing k ?

kNN for Classification (Basic Idea)

Algorithm:

1. Load data (with known features and targets (=labels))
2. Split data into a training set and a test set
3. Choose a value for k
4. For each point in the test set:
 - a) find the Euclidean distance to all training data points
 - b) store the Euclidean distances in a list and sort it
 - c) choose the first k points
 - d) assign a class to the test point based on the majority of classes present in the chosen points
5. Compare the predicted labels of the tests set with the true labels of the test set

kNN - Distance and Similarity

- kNN is based on similarity/distance
- Similarity is understood as the inverse of distance and vice versa
- From a mathematical perspective we need a s.c. **distance metric**.
- Distance metrics must satisfy several **conditions**

$$D(a, b) \geq 0$$

$$D(a, b) = 0 \text{ iff } a = b \dots \text{identity}$$

$$D(a, b) = D(b, a) \dots \text{symmetry}$$

$$D(a, b) + D(b, c) \geq D(a, c) \dots \text{triangle inequality}$$

kNN - Distance and Similarity

Euclidean Distance (L-2 Norm, real valued data)

$$D(a, b) = \sqrt{(a_1 - b_1)^2 + (a_2 - b_2)^2}$$

$$D(a, b) = \sqrt{\sum_{i=1}^p (a_i - b_i)^2} \dots p = \text{number of dimensions}$$

Manhattan Distance (L-1 Norm, real valued data)

$$D(a, b) = |a_1 - b_1| + |a_2 - b_2|$$

$$D(a, b) = \sum_{i=1}^p |a_i - b_i| \dots p = \text{number of dimensions}$$

kNN - Distance and Similarity

Minkowsky Distance(s) (real valued data)

$$D(a, b) = \sqrt[k]{\sum_{i=1}^p |a_i - b_i|^k} \dots p = \text{number of dimensions}$$

Cosine Similarity (real valued data)

$$csim(a, b) = \frac{a \odot b}{\|a\| \|b\|} \dots \odot \text{ dot product, } \|a\| \text{ norm of } a$$

$$csim(a, b) = \frac{\sum_{i=1}^p a_i b_i}{\sqrt{\sum_{i=1}^p a_i^2} \sqrt{\sum_{i=1}^p b_i^2}} \dots a_i, b_i \text{ usually } \geq 0 \text{ and } \vec{a}, \vec{b} \neq \vec{0}$$

kNN - Distance and Similarity

Kullback Leibler Divergence (distributions)

$$D(P \parallel Q) = KL(P, Q) = \sum_{x \in X} P(x) \cdot \log \frac{P(x)}{Q(x)}$$

$x \in X$... concrete values of X (e.g. bin ranges from a histogram)

P, Q ... discrete distributions over X (e.g. probability of bins in a histogram)

kNN - Distance and Similarity

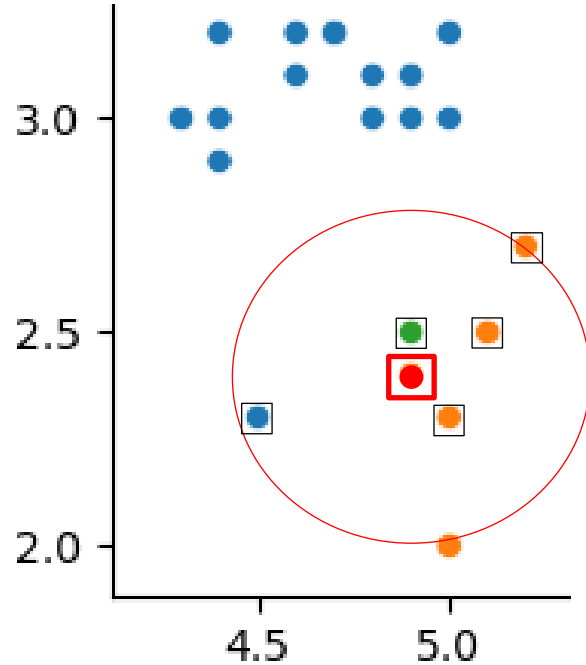
Very high dimensional spaces are problematic

- **Distance calculation** becomes burdensome (use approximate kNN, use dimensionality reduction)
- **Distances contract** (get more and more similar) when dimensionality grows very large.
- **High dimensional geometry is very unintuitive**

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kNN - Weighting



- Some neighbors are much closer to x' than others
- Closer neighbors could (should?) be more important

kNN - Weighting

Inverse distance weighting for classification (IDW)

$$w_i(x) = \frac{1}{d(x, x_i)} \quad \dots \quad \text{Do you see any problem here?}^*$$

$$w_i(x) = 1 \text{ if } d(x, x_i) = 0$$

$$P(y = c|x) = \frac{1}{k} \sum_{i \in N} w_i \cdot I(y_i = c)$$

c ... a particular class, e.g. "cat"

k ... number of neighbors

N ... the neighborhood of point x

I ... indicator Function

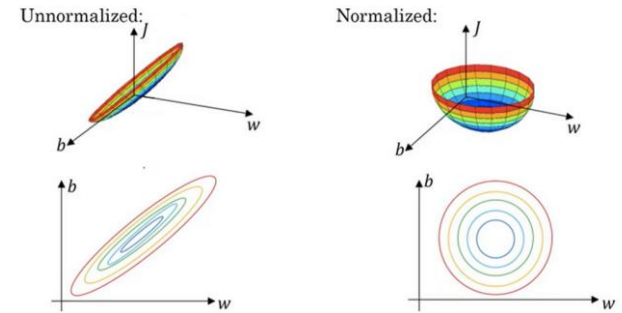
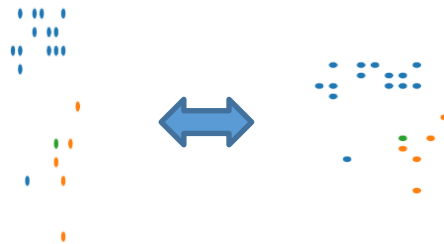
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Feature Engineering

Feature Scaling (= normalisation)

- Feature scaling transforms data values s.t. they lie in the same range
- **kNN is sensitive to attribute scaling since attributes with higher values are more influential when calculating distances.**
- But: scaling does not always lead to better performance!
- Scaling is also relevant for other algorithms, e.g. In Neural Nets convergence can be accelerated by scaling



source: deeplearning.ai | Andrew Ng

kNN – Feature Engineering

Feature Scaling

- Standardization

$$x' = \frac{x - \mu}{\sigma} \dots \mu = \text{mean of } x, \sigma = \text{standard deviation of } x$$

- Mean Normalization

$$x' = \frac{x - \mu}{\max(x) - \min(x)} \dots \mu = \text{mean}$$

- Min-Max Normalization

$$x' = \frac{x - \min(x)}{\max(x) - \min(x)}$$

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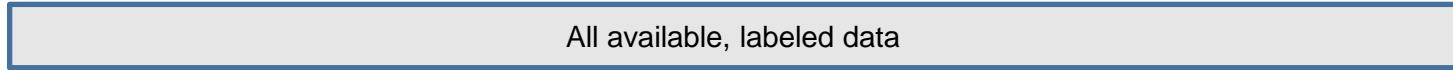
Hyper-Parameter Tuning

- **Recap:** Hyper-Parameters are set by the user and are **NOT** estimated from the data while fitting the model
- **Examples of Hyper-Parameters:** k in kNN, maximum depth in Decision Trees, learning rate in NNs, activation function in NNs, NN-Architecture
- **Examples of Parameters** (which are directly estimated from the data): Coefficients in linear models, split values and attributes in Decision Trees, weights in NNs
- **Hyper-Parameter Tuning is a form of optimization so we need to prevent overfitting!** For performance evaluation we need to use a 3-way split of the data in (1) a **training set**, (2) a **validation set** and (3) a **test set**

Hyper-Parameter Tuning

Option 0, Holdout Analog

#0



Split into train test

#1



Split into train, validation

#2



For all chosen settings of hyper-parameters: Train model and evaluate performance on the validation set. **The test set is untouched! → Select the best HP-setting**

#3

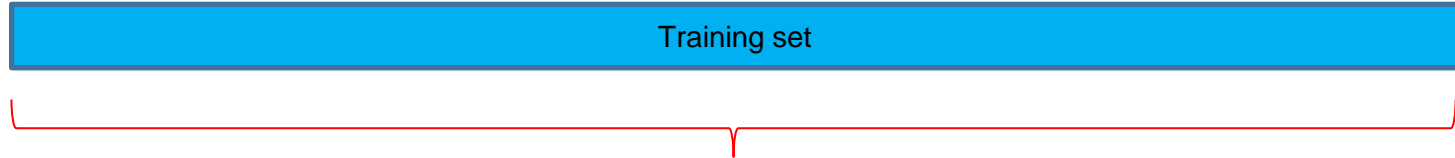


For the best HP-setting found in step #2: Retrain the model using the whole Training set and evaluate performance on the test set.

Hyper-Parameter Tuning

Option 0, Holdout Analog

#4

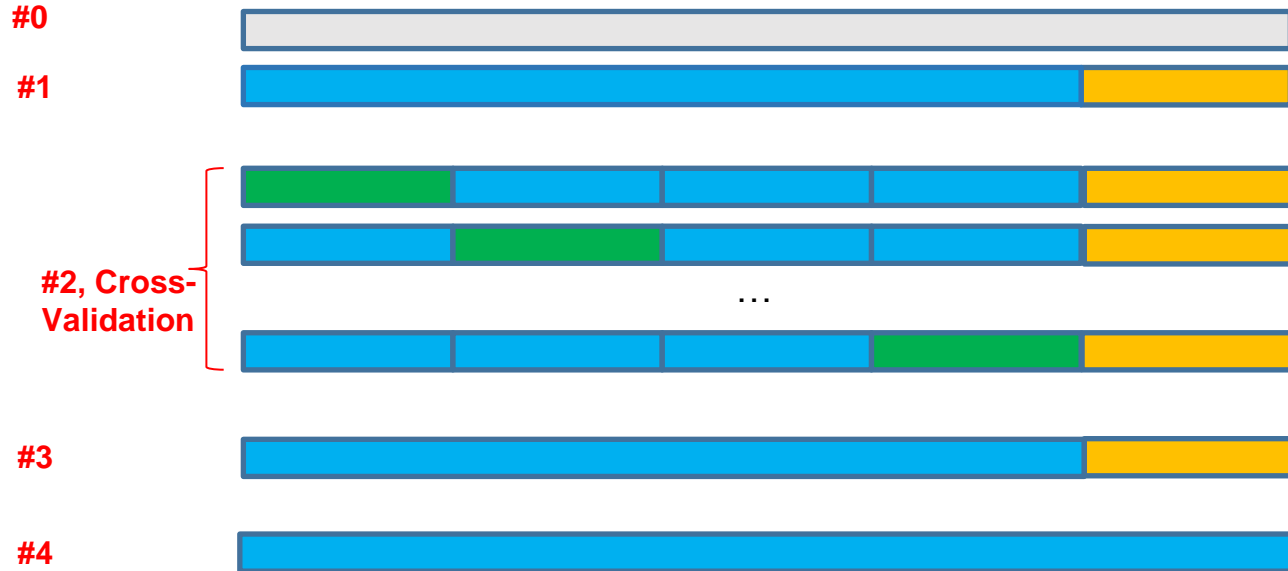


For the best HP-setting found in step #2: Retrain the model using ALL the data.
Report the accuracy found in step #3 as model accuracy

- This approach is similar to holdout validation
- Both for HP selection and for performance assessment it has the same problems: **Poor robustness since splits are arbitrary**

Hyper-Parameter Tuning

Option 1, improve stability for HP-selection via Cross-Validation



For all chosen settings of hyper-parameters: Train and evaluate performance via cross-validation. **The test set is untouched!** → **Select the best HP-setting**

Perform holdout validation

Retrain on the whole data, Report performance from step #3

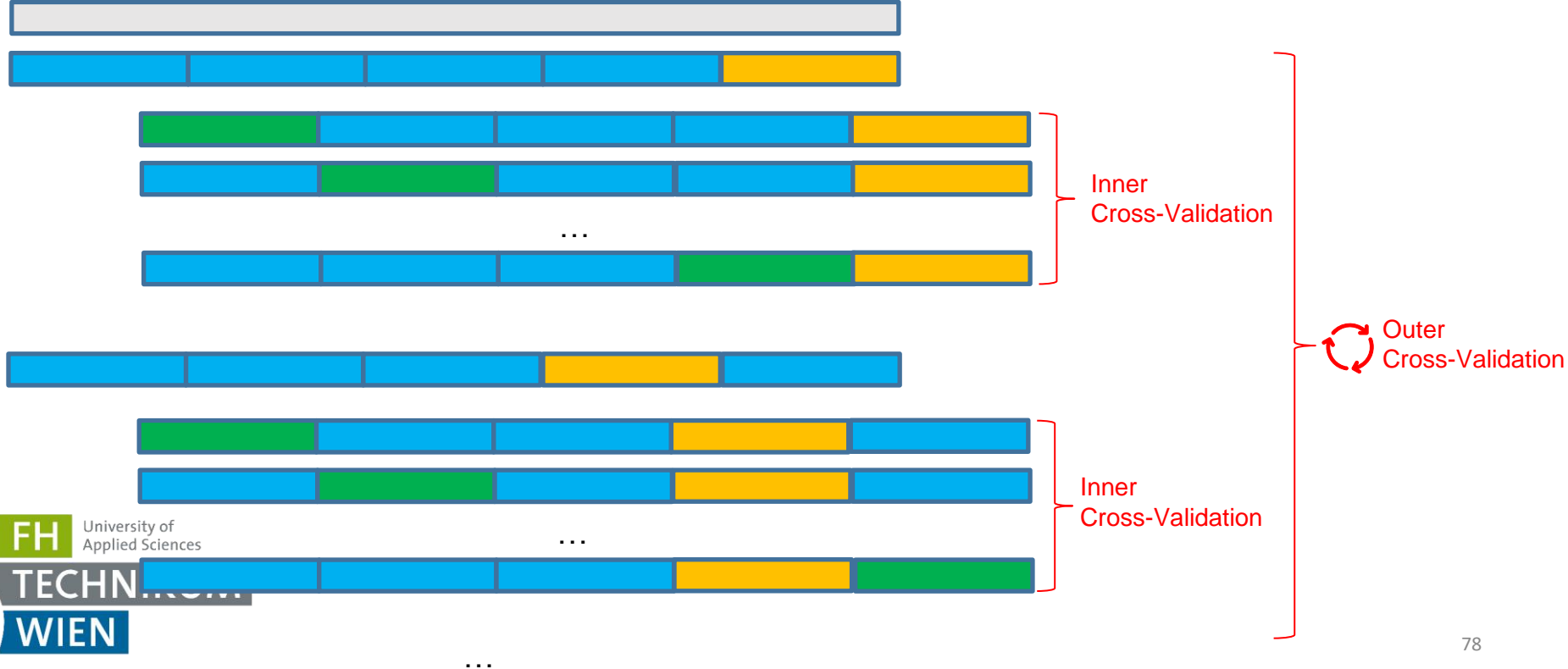
Hyper-Parameter Tuning

Option 1, improve stability for HP-selection via Cross-Validation

- In fact a combination of holdout validation (outer) and cross-validation (inner)
- Problem: performance evaluation is still based on one split
- Computational burden increases but is often ok for small/medium data sets.
If we have **2 HPs with 3 settings** each and we choose **5-fold CV**, we need to fit **45 + 2 models**

Hyper-Parameter Tuning

Option 2, nested cross validation



Hyper-Parameter Tuning

Option 2, nested cross validation

- Both HP-selection and performance evaluation are robust due to cross-validation
- Computationally burdensome: If we have **2 HPs with 3 settings each** and choose **5-fold cross-validation** for inner and outer loops, we need to fit $3*3*5*5 = \mathbf{225 + 1}$ models

Hyper-Parameter Tuning

Grid-Search vs. Random-Search

- **Grid search** refers to the exhaustive combination of all possible HP settings. Quickly becomes infeasible.
- **Random search** refers to random sampling from all possible HP-setting combinations. Is often used as an alternative to grid search when many HPs must be tuned or models are slowly trained.
- **Heuristics** (e.g. GA)

Hyper-Parameter Tuning

kNN and hyper-parameters

- k is often referred to as the only HP in kNN
- However, choosing a distance metric is also a HP!
- The same is true for using weighted or unweighted aggregation!
- Even for a simple algorithm like kNN tuning everything can become impractical, especially for larger data sets!

Questions:

- Is kNN classification or regression?
- Is linear regression classification or regression?
- Which performance metrics can you use for kNN?
- Which performance metrics can you use for linear regression ?
- Is cross validation needed for kNN?
- Is feature engineering needed for kNN?
- Is cross validation needed for linear regression ?
- Is feature engineering needed for linear regression ?
- Does kNN have parameters?
- Does kNN have hyper-parameters?
- Does linear regression have parameters?
- Does linear regression have hyper-parameters?

How would a kNN-regressor work?

You have the necessary knowledge by now – think by yourself!

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Demo 3

- kNN has several HPs: k, metric and weighting

```
class sklearn.neighbors.KNeighborsClassifier(n_neighbors=5, *, weights='uniform', algorithm='auto', leaf_size=30, p=2, metric='minkowski', metric_params=None, n_jobs=None)
```

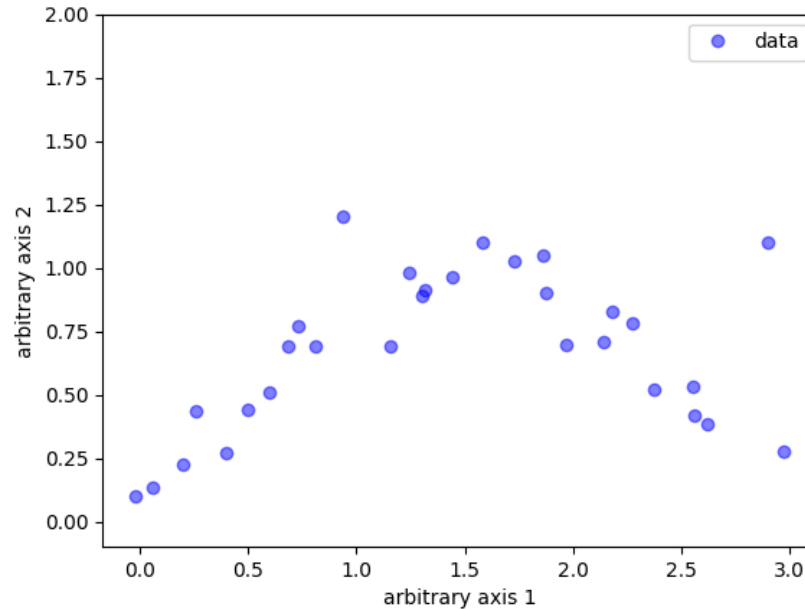
- Try StandardScaler(), MinMaxScaler() for data preparation
- GridSearchCV(), RandomSearchCV() can be used with cross_validation_score() to perform nested cross validation

Contents

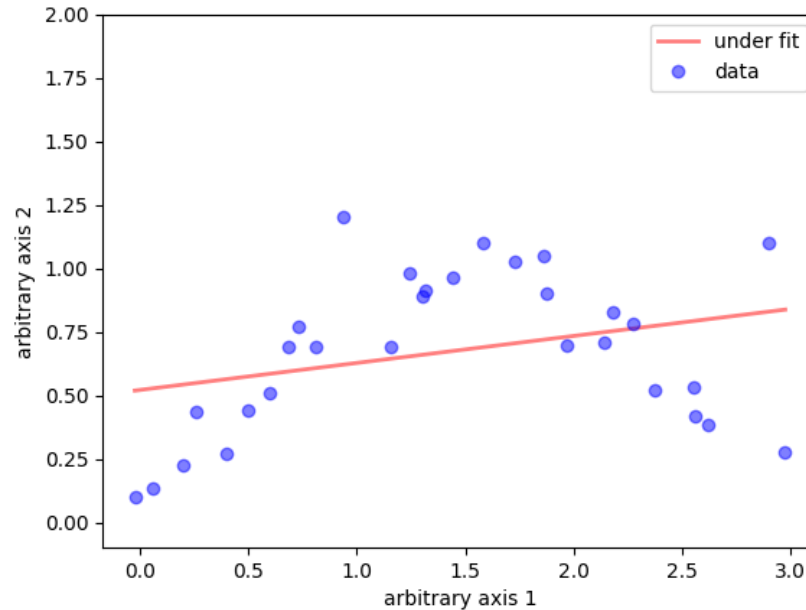
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- **Overfitting**

Overfitting

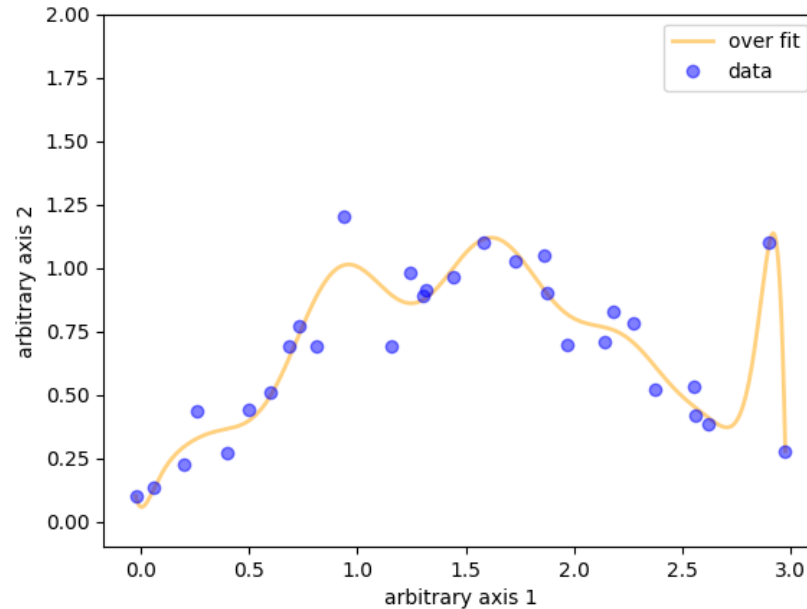
Which curve describes these points best?



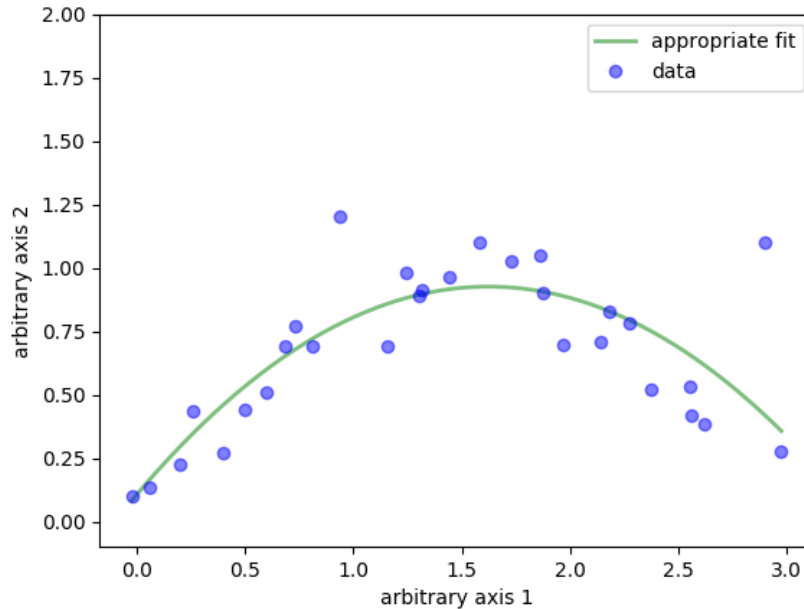
Possibly a too simple model (=underfitting)?



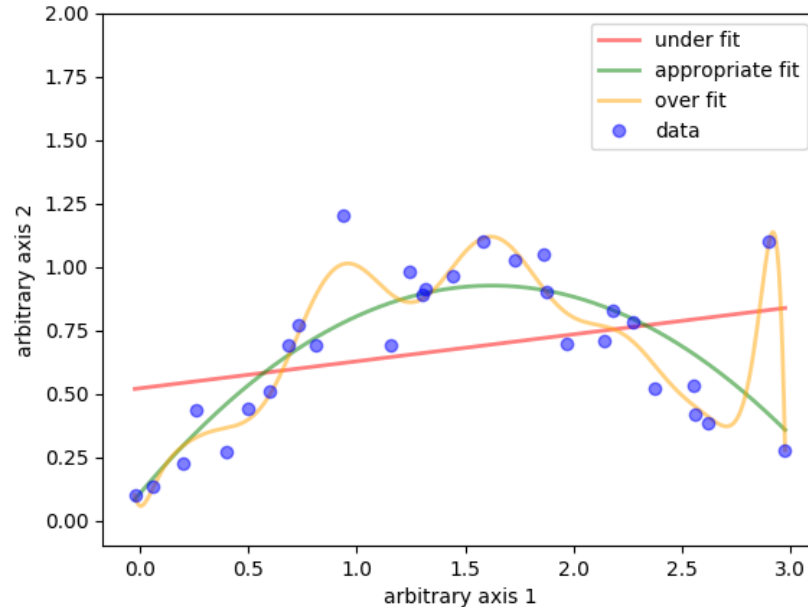
Possibly a too complex model (=overfitting)?



Possibly an appropriate model?

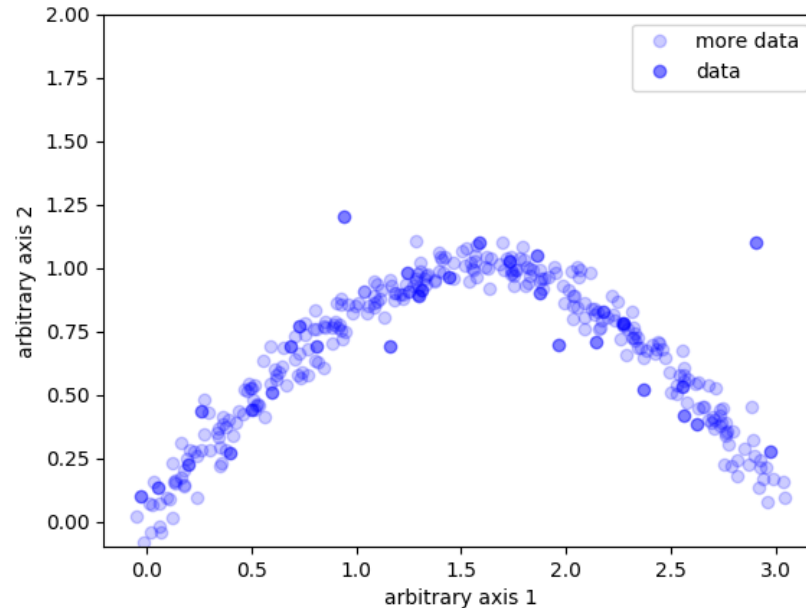


All models for a direct comparison ...

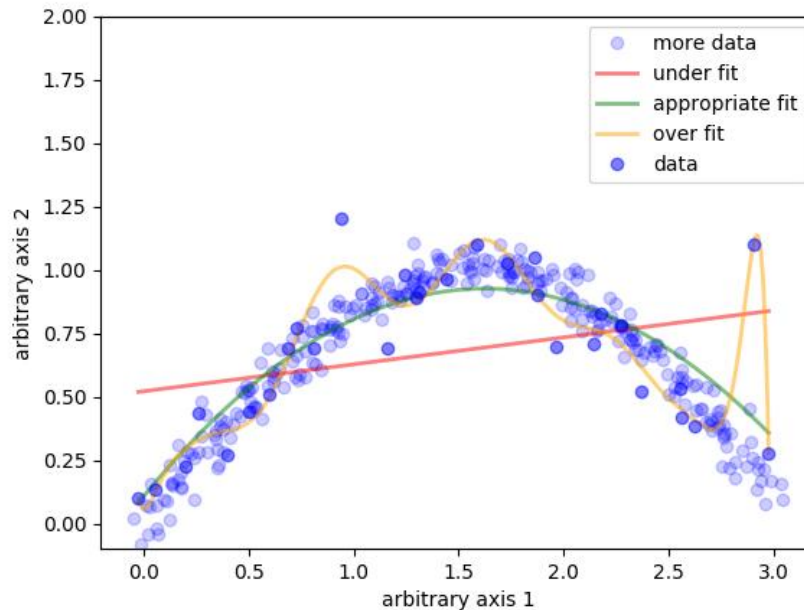


... but why is the complex (orange) model not necessarily the best?
It is closest to the data points!?!

Imagine that suddenly we have more data (from the same source) ...

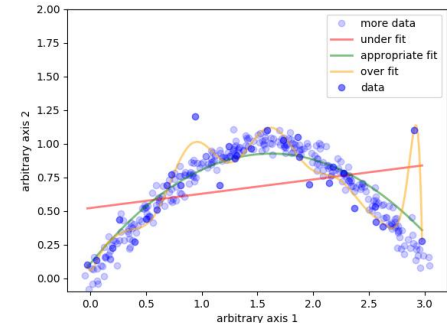
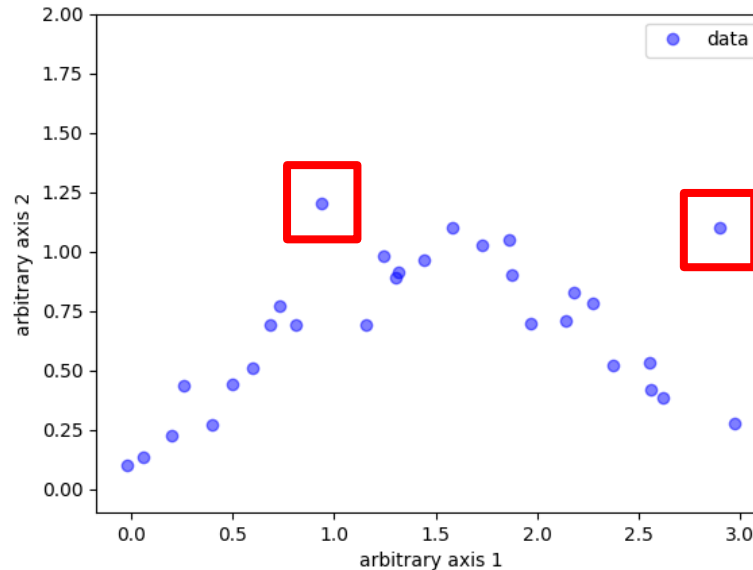


Now the orange model seems not such a great choice anymore ...

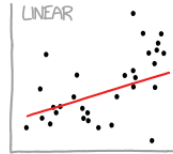


The orange model tries to capture outliers ...

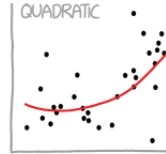
It is overly complex. It has “over fitted” the **training data** and fails on the **test data**.



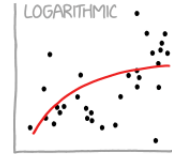
CURVE-FITTING METHODS AND THE MESSAGES THEY SEND



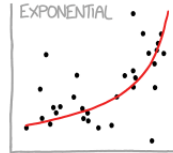
"HEY, I DID A
REGRESSION."



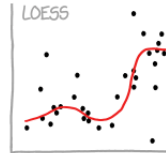
"I WANTED A CURVED
LINE, SO I MADE ONE
WITH MATH."



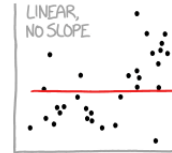
"LOOK, IT'S
TAPERING OFF!"



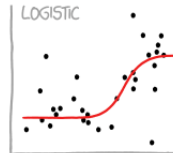
"LOOK, IT'S GROWING
UNCONTROLLABLY!"



"I'M SOPHISTICATED, NOT
LIKE THOSE BUMBLING
POLYNOMIAL PEOPLE."



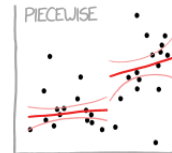
"I'M MAKING A
SCATTER PLOT BUT
I DON'T WANT TO."



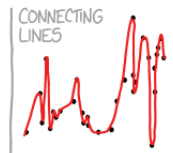
"I NEED TO CONNECT THESE
TWO LINES, BUT MY FIRST IDEA
DIDN'T HAVE ENOUGH MATH."



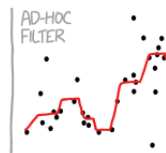
"LISTEN, SCIENCE IS HARD,
BUT I'M A SERIOUS
PERSON DOING MY BEST."



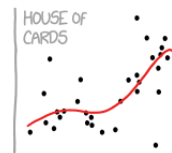
"I HAVE A THEORY,
AND THIS IS THE ONLY
DATA I COULD FIND."



"I CLICKED 'SMOOTH
LINES' IN EXCEL."



"I HAD AN IDEA FOR HOW
TO CLEAN UP THE DATA.
WHAT DO YOU THINK?"

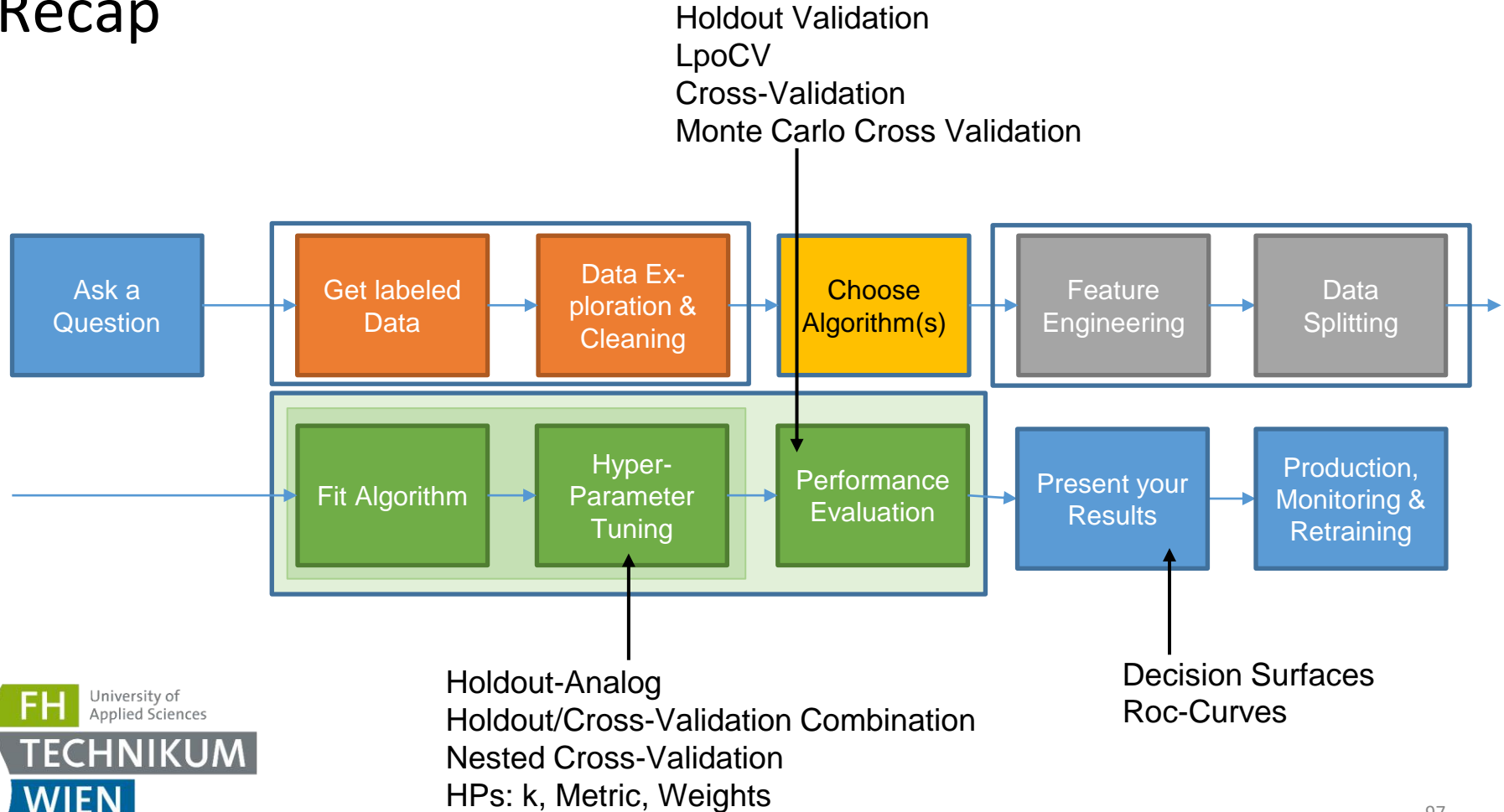


"AS YOU CAN SEE, THIS
MODEL SMOOTHLY FITS
THE- WAIT NO NO DON'T
EXTEND IT AAAAAA!!!"

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Recap



References

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- James G., Witten D., Hastie T., Tibshirani R. (2017): An introduction to Statistical Learning. – Springer.
- Kuhn M., Johnson K. (2016): Applied Predictive Modeling. – Springer.
- Meyer D., Plank P.: Slides Master Data Science @ FHTW